


**Please cite the Published Version**

Curry, Niall  and Pérez-Paredes, Pascual (2021) Understanding lecturers' practices and processes: a qualitative investigation of English-medium education in a Spanish multilingual university. In: Teaching language and content in multicultural and multilingual classrooms: CLIL and EMI approaches. Palgrave Macmillan, Cham, pp. 123-156. ISBN 9783030566142 (hardcover); 9783030566159 (ebook); 9783030566173 (softcover)

**DOI:** [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56615-9\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56615-9_6)

**Publisher:** Palgrave Macmillan

**Version:** Accepted Version

**Downloaded from:** <https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/632099/>

**Additional Information:** This version of the chapter has been accepted for publication, after peer review (when applicable) and is subject to Springer Nature's AM terms of use, but is not the Version of Record and does not reflect post-acceptance improvements, or any corrections. The Version of Record is available online at: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56615-9\\_6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56615-9_6)

**Enquiries:**

If you have questions about this document, contact [openresearch@mmu.ac.uk](mailto:openresearch@mmu.ac.uk). Please include the URL of the record in e-space. If you believe that your, or a third party's rights have been compromised through this document please see our Take Down policy (available from <https://www.mmu.ac.uk/library/using-the-library/policies-and-guidelines>)

# Understanding lecturers' practices and processes: an investigation of English medium education in a Spanish multilingual university

**Niall Curry and Pascual Perez-Paredes**

Accepted manuscript PDF deposited in Coventry University's Repository

**Original citation:**

'Understanding lecturers' practices and processes: an investigation of English medium education in a Spanish multilingual university', in *Teaching Language and Content in Multicultural and Multilingual Classrooms: CLIL and EMI Approaches*, ed. by Maria Louisa Carrio-Pastor and Begona Belles Fortuno, pub 2021 (ISBN 9783030566142)

Publisher: Palgrave Macmillan

**Copyright © and Moral Rights are retained by the author(s) and/ or other copyright owners. A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge. This item cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the copyright holder(s). The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.**

**Cite as:**

Curry, N., & Pérez-Paredes, P. (2021). Understanding Lecturers' Practices and Processes: A Qualitative Investigation of English-Medium Education in a Spanish Multilingual University. In: Carrió-Pastor, M.L., & Bellés Fortuño, B. (eds.). *Teaching Language and Content in Multicultural and Multilingual Classrooms* (pp. 123-156). Palgrave.

**Understanding Lecturers' Practices and Processes: A Qualitative Investigation of English-Medium Education in a Spanish Multilingual University**

Niall Curry  
*Coventry University*

Pascual Pérez-Paredes  
*University of Murcia*  
*University of Cambridge – Cambridge Language Sciences*

**Internationalization, English-Medium Instruction, and Beliefs**

This chapter investigates how the internationalization process by way of English-medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS) is unfolding in a Spanish university context. Broadly, English-medium instruction (EMI), like content and language integrated learning (CLIL), can be defined as “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English” (Dearden 2015: 4). A typical differentiating factor between CLIL and EMI is the role of language teaching, and typically, EMI has “no explicit language learning aims” (Madhavan and McDonald 2014: 1). However, separating language and content in EMI contexts has proven challenging owing to EMI instructors' low language proficiency (Dearden 2015), instructors' lack of language awareness and training (Dearden et al. 2016), the varied English language skills among students (Macaro et al. 2018), and broader linguistic difficulties among students and instructors (Vu and Burns 2014).

Moreover, following Ortega (2014), in many cases where research on EMI addresses language issues, it typically takes a simplistic and uncritical position of seeing L2 speakers as deficient and a cause of problems in EMI contexts. The complexity of the sites where multilingual universities struggle to provide EMI programs is extraordinary and requires further attention and theorization beyond such a simplistic view (Macaro et al. 2018). In fact, in their systematic review, Macaro et al. (2018: 69) identify a number of outstanding problems and questions in the field of EMI, of which one has been the inspiration for this chapter, namely: Do different HE institutions (e.g., private and state) experience different levels of success in implementing EMI? If so, why? As there remains a need to investigate the implementation of EMI policies in a range of higher education institutions, this study focuses on state-funded education and investigates teacher beliefs about EMI in a Spanish state-funded higher education institute.

A well-established means of accessing and understanding the impact of policies on education, such as an EMI policy, pertains to the study of teacher reflections and beliefs (c.f. Fives and Gill 2014). While the value of studying teacher beliefs is widely recognized, critiques remain surrounding both conceptual and methodological inconsistencies in such studies (Skott 2014). Conceptually, definitions of beliefs have been argued to refer to perceived truths, affect, and cognition. For some they are socially bound and directly linked to practice (Skott 2014). As such, the conceptual inconsistencies make it difficult to compare and contrast studies on teacher beliefs. Moreover, Borg (2015) argues that contemporary research on teacher beliefs lacks purpose. Such a view is also reflected in Skott (2014) wherein the methodological weaknesses in studies of teacher beliefs indicate that teachers' professional practices are not often theoretically situated. Rather, they appear fragmented and add little to the understanding and development of teachers in contexts like EMEMUS contexts. While it is imperative that we continue the important work in the context of teacher beliefs, following Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019), we must endeavor to question current understandings of teacher beliefs and move beyond initial descriptive accounts toward more theoretically and practically impactful research.

To address the needs identified thus far, this paper adopts Dafouz and Smit's ROADMAPPING framework (2016, 2020) to analyze the practices and processes of EMEMUS lecturers at a Spanish university. These practices and processes can be understood as "the teaching and learning activities that construct and are constructed by specific English-Medium education in multilingual University settings" (Dafouz and Smit 2016: 407). Such practices and processes are intrinsically linked to the understanding of beliefs as, following Skott (2014), "beliefs are expected to significantly influence the ways in which teachers interpret and engage with the problems of practice" (p. 19). Therefore, by adopting the ROADMAPPING framework (2016, 2020), this research can offer a better understanding of EMEMUS lecturers' approaches to managing content and language in their EMEMUS teaching from an emic perspective and systematically address issues in EMEMUS while theoretically positioning and interrogating teacher beliefs.

The analysis is based on the tagging and analysis of two interviews according to the ROADMAPPING framework and the results of a detailed survey of 42 EMEMUS lecturers. Our analysis explored the development and construction of knowledge in the EMEMUS context by examining lecturers' understanding of their teaching practices and processes. The findings of this study are manifold. For example, this study reveals that at a micro level, EMEMUS lecturers' beliefs appear to at times both support and impede the internationalization process at this Spanish university. More broadly, this study allows for further commentary on EMEMUS lecturers' practices and perceived roles in language provision. Reflecting on the findings of this study, this paper also considers more macro perspectives to better understand the larger institutional practices and processes surrounding internationalization and EMEMUS. Theoretically, our study informs our understanding of the

ROADMAPPING framework, outlines our methodological processes for accessing this information and highlights the role of internationalization and EMEMUS practices in non-English-speaking countries.

### **English in International Higher Education**

English-medium instruction in higher education (HE) is an arguably unstoppable phenomenon (Dafouz and Smit 2020) that has been discussed widely in the context of globalization processes (Dafouz and Smit 2016). Increased student and staff mobility, international collaboration, and the role of English as the international lingua franca have all contributed to the Englishization of universities, at least in Europe (Lanvers and Hultgren 2018). However, universities worldwide approach their policies to attract international students very differently.

The number of international students in HE worldwide, according to the OECD's (2020) latest update at the time of writing, varies from 21.5% in Australia to 3.2% in Norway and Spain, 0.6% in Mexico, and 0.2% in Brazil. Further differences can be found when specific areas of education are considered. For example, in business, administration, and law, the percentage of international students is 36.2% in Australia, 32% in New Zealand, and 30.2% in the UK. In Spain, however, the percentage of international students does not seem to be affected by the specific field of education. As shown in Fig. 1, most areas remain well below 5%, with health and welfare leading the different fields with 5.5%, and education at the bottom with 1.8%.

Spain, in terms of percentage, appears to enroll the fewest international students according to 2017 data. The HE systems in countries such as Italy 5.3%, Portugal 6.4%, Germany 8.4%, France 10.2%, and Austria 17.2% seem to attract a higher percentage of students from other countries. While Austria, Germany, and France have traditionally been strong countries in the HE international scenario, and their languages, German and French, considered languages of science and education, the languages of the south of Europe, such as Italian, Portuguese and Spanish, have not played such a major role, at least in the twentieth and the beginning of this twenty-first centuries. Despite the pervasiveness of Spanish as a global language, neither Spain nor Mexico seem draw in international students.<sup>1</sup>

Figure 1 illustrates how the largest flow of international students seem to favor Anglo-speaking countries such as Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States. However, it is of note that these countries do hold a longer tradition of international education. Anglospeaking countries have developed different strategies to strengthen their position as attractive destinations.

---

<sup>1</sup> The percentage of graduates between 25 and 34 years does seem to have an impact on these figures—44.26% of the population in Spain hold a HE degree, 40.46% in Austria, 46.94% in France, 51.39% in Australia, and 50.75% in the United Kingdom. Only Germany, 32.28%, falls below 35%.

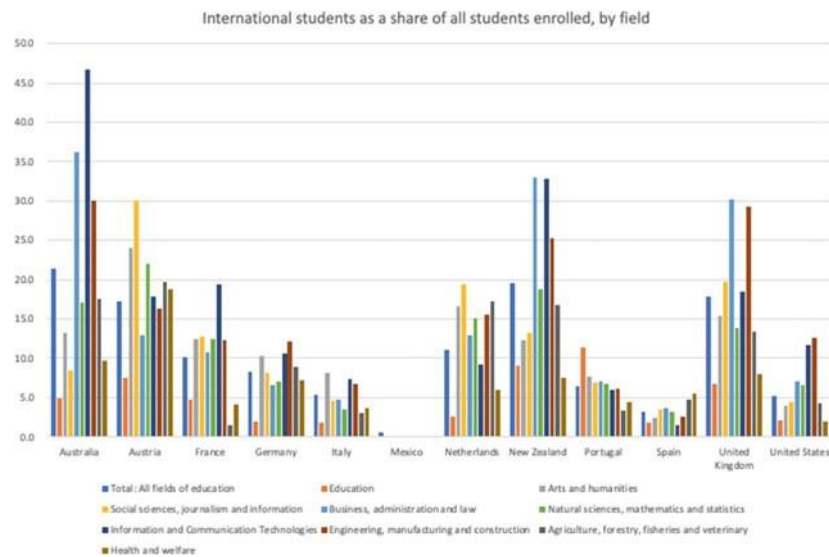


Fig. 1 Percentages of HE students worldwide (OECD 2020)

New Zealand has published their new International Education Strategy in which the International Student Wellbeing Strategy plays a prominent role. New Zealand authorities claim that this strategy was developed to ensure that student wellbeing is at the heart of their international education sector. Part of this policy is recognition of the fact that international students do not speak English as their L1: “[International students] are in unfamiliar surroundings, often have English as a second language, and are far from family and social networks [we want to ensure] that international students feel welcome and safe, enjoy a high-quality education and are valued for their contributions to New Zealand” (New Zealand Government 2018: 14). The UK, through the 2019 International Education Strategy: global potential, global growth, however, has decided to emphasize the benefits of their education system based on the pre-eminence of English as a global language.

[The UK has] strong historical links with many countries around the world. Underpinning these benefits are positive cultural relationships and the widespread use of English as the global language of business. Many UK education providers are already exporting successfully. Leaving the EU gives the UK the freedom to pursue an independent trade policy that reflects its unique strengths. (HM Government 2019: 18)

International education varies greatly worldwide (Dafouz and Smit 2020), and Dafouz and Smit (2016) coined the term “English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMENUS)” to capture the diversity of HE contexts where English is used as a language of both instruction and learning, in systems where languages other than English play different roles. Dafouz and Smit (2020) argue that while EMENUS is a phenomenon that takes place globally, a “north-south divide” (p. 14) characterizes the European region as universities in the Nordic countries lead the implementation of programs in EMEMUS. These authors note that the Spanish HE International strategy suggested that by 2020, 30%

of all degree programs be offered in English with the aim “to consolidate a strong and internationally attractive university system which fosters incoming and outgoing student and staff mobility as well as the internationalization of curricula and of research activities for the sake of a more globally oriented workforce” (2020: 29). This national-level policy was influenced by the global trends in the early years of the 2000s and has had an impact on institutions and, at the micro level, on classrooms, teachers, and students. It is the practices and processes of those in the classroom that are the focus of this chapter.

Dafouz and Smit (2020) have noted how the practices and processes “associated with understanding and implementing EME are as varied as the myriad of agents, settings and languages involved” (p. 30). To address this variety, Dafouz and Smit (2016, 2020) developed ROADMAPPING as a theoretical framework where practices in EMEMUS can be captured, analyzed and theorized. The framework is integrated by six different dimensions that have been identified as contributing to underlying theoretical underpinnings in sociolinguistics, ecolinguistics, and language policy research (Dafouz and Smit 2020). These dimensions are seen as social phenomena that are discursively constructed. The dimensions identified in Dafouz and Smit (2016) are the roles of English, academic disciplines, language management, the role of the agents, practices and processes, and, finally, internationalization and glocalization. The roles of English dimension acknowledges the complexities involved in HE settings where more than one language is used for communication. The presence of various linguistic repertoires can potentially give rise to friction or co-existence as well as the process of, among others, dynamic identity negotiation at different levels (micro, meso, macro). As for the academic disciplines dimension, the implementation of programs in EMEMUS challenges previous beliefs and practices in mainstream academic literacies by way of engaging in new norms, values and ways to construct knowledge. The language management dimension takes stock of the variety of policies that, at different levels, regulate and manipulate the use of languages; English in this case. ROADMAPPING also acknowledges the roles played by individual and institutional agents by examining how social structures impact the implementation of programs in EMEMUS. The internationalization and glocalization dimensions note that HE institutions are subject to increasing pressure to decipher the emerging new roles of universities in an ever-increasing globalized society that is also undergoing major social and political changes. How institutions navigate these tensions is ultimately the product of either explicit or implicit processes in different universities. Finally, the dimension that will be further explored in our research is practices and processes. This dimension understands social practices as cultural conceptions that are key elements in our study of programs in EMEMUS.

[Practices and processes are] thus concerned with the administrative, research and educational activities that construct and are constructed by EMENUS realities [...] allowing for dynamic analyses at all levels, for example classroom discourse, teacher professional development or stages of internationalisation. (Dafouz and Smit 2020: 60)

Digging deeper into practices and processes, there is a specific focus on the socialization of learning and cultural facets to education. A further dimension appears to capture processes and practices that respond to the uniqueness of the EMEMUS learning context. This refers to consideration of learner needs, both linguistic and pedagogical, as well as cognitive, mental, and physical activities (Dafouz and Smit 2020: 56–67).

This dynamic and complex understanding of EMEMUS is of great interest as it is instrumental in “problematizing simplistic divides between language and content” (Baker and Hüttner 2017: 1). ROADMAPPING has been extensively used to explore EMEMUS on a national scale (Brown and Bradford 2018) and in international contexts (Baker and Hüttner 2017) to examine teacher beliefs on the integration of content and language across sites (Dafouz and Smit 2016), or, among other areas, to understand teacher identity in the design of professional development programs (Dafouz 2018). Baker and Hüttner (2017) found that the participants in EMEMUS “share a complex understanding of the diverse roles of English and other languages involved in these multilingual sites” (p. 13). They also found in lecturers and students a “superficial orientation [to the role of English in EMEMUS as an] unambiguous, monolithic entity” (p. 13). The use of ROADMAPPING allowed them to tap into the contextual patterns that make up the perceived ideal language policy and the positioning of other languages as relevant to teaching and learning the discipline. As a theoretical framework, ROADMAPPING allows us to take facets of the EMEMUS and internationalization processes and see them clearly within their wider interconnected ecosystem.

### **Interview and Survey Data and Analysis**

This chapter presents a largely qualitative analysis that forms part of a larger study on EMEMUS which involves the detailed survey of 42 EMEMUS lecturers, and focus groups and interviews with 24 of these lecturers. Mainly derived from the detailed analysis of two specific interviews, the data is used here to investigate and better understand the internationalization process by way of EMEMUS practices and processes in a Spanish university context. The survey data is used to set this analysis in greater relief, and to better understand and access the macro practices and processes at the Spanish university.

At the Spanish university being studied, the role of English has generated an important question and challenge for teaching, with more and more teachers needing to teach their subjects through English. With this wide-reaching need for EMEMUS recognized and supported, our study aimed to gain a deeper understanding of the challenges the institution and teachers face and the barriers to successful implementation of EMEMUS, and provide direction for development and support.

The interviews took a semi-structured format and were framed within the context of the EMI policy at the institution. All the lecturers were familiar with EMEMUS and the remit of English at their institution, more generally. There were several questions that were discussed with each participant



through the prism of EMEMUS. However, the lecturers were encouraged to discuss items beyond the original broad interview questions. The interviews lasted about 30 minutes and the following questions were used to guide them:

- Could you tell me a little about your own use of English, both professionally and everyday life?
- What are the main differences in your opinion between teaching in English and Spanish?
- Do you think teaching content and teaching language require different teaching approaches? How do you balance the two?
- How do you think students find studying in English? Are they well prepared?
- If a student is having language and not content problems in your classes, what do you do? How do you address it?
- Do you find academic English and academic Spanish to be similar? Very different? Do you translate? Is it easy to do that?
- Do you use technology in the classroom? If so, how and why do you use it?

For this chapter, an analysis of two of the interviews is presented with interviewees, Encarna and Carlos. These two interviews were chosen as Encarna represents a lecturer with experience of teaching in EMEMUS. She is also an educationalist and therefore represents a very specific type of lecturer; one who has a keen interest in pedagogy and internationalization. The second interviewee, Carlos, is soon to be an EMEMUS lecturer in law. He faces particular problems with teaching that are not shared by other disciplines, i.e., the translating and teaching of heavily contextualized Spanish law into English. He does not have previous experience of teaching in English or EMEMUS. These two interviewees were chosen for analysis in this paper as they represent two very different case studies of lecturers that co-exist within the same EMEMUS and under the same policy. Each interview was transcribed, and each utterance was coded according to the ROADMAPPING framework (Dafouz and Smit 2016). In certain instances, a single line of dialogue could hold two tags. In such cases, utterances were attributed with primary and secondary tags that reflect the ROADMAPPING dimensions. This is not surprising as the interconnectedness of the branches of ROADMAPPING is well-established (Dafouz and Smit 2016, 2020). What this means in practicality is that some examples of practices and processes are embedded within roles of English, academic disciplines, language management, agents, and internationalization, and vice versa.

In order to understand how their practices and processes interplay with the internationalization process, the interviews were thematically analyzed identify overarching themes. These themes were broadly identified as:

- learning and social constructivism in EMEMUS and
- reflexive and adaptive teaching for EMEMUS.

For the supplementary survey data, the participants were 42 academic staff teaching a wide range of courses that can be categorized into business (19), education (7), physics (5), and biology (3), with 5 law

lecturers who were not teaching through English at the time of the surveys and interviews, and 3 who did not specify. The average years of teaching experience was 16.5, and most of the staff had more than 9 years of teaching experience. Half of the teachers have taught in English at university. Twenty-six of the 42 participants rated their English level at C1 and 11 of them at C2; only 5 reported to be at B2 level. Among all the participants, only 3 lecturers have taken an EMI course, among whom one reported to be taking an online course, one was taking a course offered by their faculty, and the other one did not specify. For the survey, participants were asked 60 questions that spanned the following themes:

- use of English
- perceived language competence
- differences across languages and disciplines
- general pedagogy
- pedagogical approaches when teaching in English
- training needs
- and use of technology

Overall, the focus in this chapter is a presentation of the qualitative analysis of the practices and processes identified in the interviews and a reflection on the tagging process to inform future EMEMUS studies. In presenting the results in the subsequent sections, both the micro and the macro level practices and processes are identified and discussed. As the focus of this paper is on the qualitative analysis, the survey data is used only to reflect the views of Encarna and Carlos in their wider macro context.

### **Encarna and Carlos: Practices and Processes**

After tagging the interviews, practices and processes were found to be a frequent feature of both Encarna's and Carlos' discourses. For Encarna, of the 154 primary and secondary tags applied to her interview, 47 pertained to practices and processes. Overall, practices and processes account for 37% of Encarna's primary tags, 17% of her secondary tags, and 31% of all of her tags, rendering them the most common aspect of ROADMAPPING identified in her interview. Similarly, practices and processes were also a frequent feature of Carlos' interview. Of the 131 primary and secondary tags applied to Carlos' interview, 63 reflected practices and processes. In total, practices and processes account for 57% of Carlos' primary tags, 24% of his secondary tags, and 48% of all of his tags. As with Encarna, this means that practices and processes are the most common aspects of ROADMAPPING identified in his interview. However, it should be noted that the questions outlined in the methodology section do guide the discussion in the direction of practices and processes. While there are many ways in which these data could be analyzed, the purpose here is to consider how Encarna's and Carlos' accounts of practices and processes impact upon and/or respond to the internationalization process and the effective support of EMEMUS.

In analyzing the interviews, it appears that in the reflections on practices and processes there

are facets of both lecturers' work that reflect behavior conducive to EMEMUS implementation and internationalization, and there are facets that do not. At this micro level of analysis, practices, and processes have been subdivided into two categories in order to make both lecturers' engagement with effective EMEMUS and internationalization processes clear: 1) learning and social constructivism in EMEMUS and 2) reflexive and adaptive teaching for EMEMUS. Let us first begin with a consideration of their practices and processes pertaining to learning and social constructivism.

### **Learning and Social Constructivism in EMEMUS**

In EMEMUS, it is well-established that social constructivist approaches to learning are crucial for the development of knowledge and the ability to effectively communicate that knowledge through English (Dafouz and Smit 2020). Encarna very clearly acknowledges the value of socialized learning in the following example.

So, as I have told you that my teaching is based on task-based learning, and they are all the time working together, and working with and presenting things, and discussing things for them is very challenging.

In this example, she accounts for her students' practices. Importantly, she acknowledges the problems her students face when working through English and a solution she supports, i.e., they struggle to communicate and therefore should work together to improve. Such an approach represents long-standing core tenets within the field of social constructivism, such as those supported by Bandura (1977, 1986), who argued that learning takes place in a social context. Moreover, recognizing more recent advances in concepts like interthinking, not only is the social facet key but also the co-constructedness of knowledge plays an important role in social constructivist approaches to learning (Littleton and Mercer 2013). Her focus on "working together" reflects her use of interthinking approaches, and the clear value she places on the socialization of learning. In a similar example, she refers to students working together to help support one another's learning.

So, I always try to listen to everybody, trying to force them to speak in my class and to try to...and always trying to help each other.

Again, in this example, the role of community is very clear. She encourages her students to help one another. Such an approach to community building has been seen to facilitate effective learning, where students develop learning relationships with one another (Haneda 1997; Carpenter and Murphey 2007). While Carlos has less experience of EMEMUS, he does have some previous experience in other institutions. He too recognizes that the main benefits from EMEMUS practices in the law classroom will only happen if local and international students engage in activities where they collaborate and work together.

I must say I'm quite excited about this whole thing, because my wish, my dream will be for my students, the Spanish students and international students that came here to be able to work in groups, and to have [unclear], competitions...

A challenge of this analysis is to identify the extent to which the will of both lecturers is indeed to create a community. Smit (2013) identifies that community building is an important aspect of teaching in EMEMUS. She finds "that all participants, students and teachers alike, engage in, and jointly develop their community specific lingua franca practices over time" (p. 24). Moreover, she finds this to be effective in creating inhibition in language use irrespective of English language proficiency levels, as the students become more used to functioning in English for educational purposes (p. 22). That said, the community constructed was bound by academic discipline where the students' studies were part of a shared community of practice. While this study is concerned with addressing and understanding beliefs as practices and processes and their role in the internationalization process, a future study to investigate other dimensions of their practices, such as classroom practices and academic discipline, would be valuable.

There are further examples that address social and community approaches to teaching and learning in Encarna's interview. For example, in her discussion with her students, she attempts to make herself a language model, reflecting the concept of the near-peer role model, which serves to give learners more tangible and accessible evidence of their capacity for language learning (Dörnyei 2009; Ruddick and Nadasdy 2013; Curry 2019). This is constructed in the following example.

The others they – I always encourage them to say that in the way you want, and I always use myself as an example of someone that is not very good at speaking English. And I would say my English is a kind of English-ish, and I don't know the majority of the terms, and I don't have a very big lexicon in English, so don't be worried if you don't know a word.

Furthermore, Encarna talks explicitly about "active learning" tasks and methods, as in the following utterance.

Since I started to teach at the university, I have been very focused on implementing all my classes, active learning tasks and active learning methodologies.

This creates a very clear connection to social constructivism, where active learning pertains to learning through action and engagement and is underpinned conceptually by theories such as the Vygotskian socio-cultural theory (Mattar 2018).

More broadly, Encarna recognizes the importance of the learning environment. She talks regularly about the value of a personal learning environment and she sees her role as one that creates a safe-speaking environment for second-language users. She talks about creating an English-speaking space for her students, "So, in the first days I try to create a natural space for speaking in English." In her

attempt to create a space conducive for learning, her practices reflect that which is well-established in the theory, i.e., that communicative contexts that allow for lots of interaction are central to community-based learning (Carpenter and Murphey 2007). In fact, such a view reflects the value of communities of practice for effective learning, as seen in Van Compernelle and Williams' study (2012) in which university students learning French develop sociolinguistic competence through their acculturation within a learning community.

While in many ways both Encarna's and Carlos' reported practices and processes demonstrate the qualities of an agent of internationalization and EMEMUS, there is also evidence of practices that challenge effective EMEMUS implementation. For example, while Carlos identifies the importance of collaborative and cooperative work, he thinks that there is a lack of willingness to engage in communication between local and international students. Spanish local students are perceived as potentially reluctant to engage in activities using the English language.

The interaction with Spanish students, and I hope they are not shy, I hope they really want to talk, etcetera, but probably it will be... It's already difficult in Spanish to make that talk in class, and probably it will be more challenging in English.

This view is expanded later in the interview when Carlos goes on to assert that there is the widespread idea that Spanish speakers do not seem to be able to speak competently, in English.

But it was what [unclear] for me, what this was, it was a more important priority, was that they realised that they could do it, which is something, and I don't know whether that's the case in other countries, but I think in Spain we have the feeling that we will never be able to speak in English, so it's kind of a complex.

Although Carlos did not position himself as particularly embracing this idea of Spanish students having a lower level of English, being himself a clear example of a successful lecturer and researcher that uses English in international forums, it is interesting that he understands that Spanish speakers, as a homogenous group of speakers, are positioned hierarchically lower in the scale of L2 competence against the backdrop of an imaginary global society. It would be interesting to probe into how EMEMUS lecturers understand the divide between language practice (what people do) and language ideology (what people think about how things should be done) as discussed in Spolsky (2004). Spolsky (2004) suggested that "language ideology or beliefs designate a speech community's consensus on what value to apply to each of the language variables or named language varieties that make up its repertoire" (p. 14). From this perspective, it may seem that, judging from Carlos' statement, the Spanish group is particularly harsh when judging their own abilities to use English as a lingua franca. However, this consensus may also affect how others' social practices are conceptualized. Carlos identified a particular group of international students as not willing to play an active role in the lessons.

I have had difficulty with [nationality] students, for example, but it was more a cultural thing than a linguistic one [unclear]. They wouldn't talk, and they wouldn't participate, but I know that they were following the course, and they were even asking for more [readings?], etcetera, but it's probably more a cultural difference.

Carlos is revisiting here his previous experience as a lecturer in different higher education institutions. He seems to imply that the nationality of students defines their behavior and their interaction within EMEMUS lessons. This alignment ties in with Spolsky's (2004) association of major languages worldwide with ethnolinguistically homogeneous countries, or at least with predominant discourses in those countries that favor the relevance of one of the languages in those territories over the others. Drawing on this view of the role of language in lecturers' and students' practices and processes, Dafouz and Smit (2020) identify that effective EMEMUS presupposes a culture wherein translanguaging processes are supported and embedded within the wider learning culture. However, in Encarna's interview there is evidence to suggest that she does not support translanguaging in her role as an EMEMUS lecturer. In the following example, she talks about her teaching of bilingual classes. However, she says that these classes are only in English. Therefore, she does not permit the reflexive use of linguistic repertoires by students that are required for the facilitation of translanguaging.

The main difference probably is that in my bilingual classes, nowadays I only teach in English because of my... Well, in the degree, in the master's, I teach some classes in English and some classes in Spanish.

In further discussions, she talks about creating an English-only environment with her bilingual students.

**Encarna:** Even in the corridor, always that I identify someone from the bilingual group, I turn into English.

**Interviewer:** And how did you create that requirement?

**Encarna:** I said it in the first day.

This example quite clearly reflects Encarna's approach to the use of Spanish in the EMEMUS classroom. That is, she does not permit the use of Spanish or facilitate translanguaging. Throughout the interview, Encarna regularly reports on translation processes as harmful, difficult, as risking important and meaningful losses, and as being linguistically fraught. Take, for example, the following utterance by Encarna where she likens the use of Spanish, English, and translation to a destructive process.

So, when you're translating phrase by phrase from the Spanish into English, you're trying to make with a hammer, to put into a hammer in your Spanish, to try to combine them into English patterns, and it doesn't work.

Encarna's approach to bilingualism reflects English and Spanish as "two solitudes" (Cummins 1994) as Spanish is not used as a supportive resource to scaffold the learning of both content and language in English (Doiz et al. 2013). Her reflection on her processes and practices seems to show that she sees

translanguaging as a contaminant (Creese and Blackledge 2010) despite ample evidence supporting the claim that the use of multiple languages is both cognitively beneficial (Garcia and Wei 2014) and an effective support for students in EMEMUS (Fujimoto-Adamson and Adamson 2018). Therefore, while the implementation of a social constructivist approach by Carlos and Encarna supports EMEMUS and the internationalization of the university, Encarna's stance on translanguaging and Carlos' view of student unwillingness to collaborate across cultural groups reflect practices that may be negatively impacting this internationalisation process.

### **Reflexive and Adaptive Teaching for EMEMUS**

Compared to traditional language classrooms, EMEMUS bring with them an array of unique challenges. EMEMUS lecturers must often respond to students with different pedagogical approaches to language teaching. This may be owing to the requirement to balance the needs of a multilingual classroom with expert content knowledge in their respective disciplines (Dafouz and Smit 2020). This is evident in Carlos's interview, where his prior beliefs include his previous experience as a student and researcher outside of Spain. His discourse is dominated by the need to favor the local students' exposure to activities where they engage with other students, locally, nationally, and internationally. His previous experiences with "competitions" seem to be crucial.

We have actually done it. We do it in our classes, in the practical part of the subjects, but now this year we have done it for the first time abroad. And we have big – two groups of students, and we open a call for all of them to participate. They have to show a certain level of English –C1 or C2 – and we participated with them in international [over speaking]. In Madrid, I mean in this one. They performed very well [over speaking]. That was – it was quite an effort for everyone.

Competitions and contests for law students seem to be an important tool in his EMEMUS teaching strategy. So too are technologies. Carlos adopts here a pragmatic stance by identifying technologies, such as presentation software, as tools to present well-structured lessons, as well as videos and internet content as an opportunity to offer extra English language input.

I think that's why we use PowerPoint and essentially videos on the internet that we show, for example, our discussion on the European Council, but we used the videos of the European Commission that shows how a discussion actually [takes place?].

In Encarna's reflections on her own practices and processes, she discusses her approach to managing and mitigating the linguistic and the learning needs of her students of education. In many ways, her approach reflects effective means for facilitating EMEMUS and internationalization, with the following examples demonstrating her commitment to developing metacognitive skills in her students.

I know I have news from other places when our student says, oh, I am sorry, I don't understand this example. So I always try to listen to everybody, trying to force them to speak in my class and to try to...and always trying to help each other.

These reflections demonstrate Encarna's recognition of the importance of metacognitive skills such as help-seeking, which are known to support learner autonomy and effective learning strategies (Newman 1998; Schworm and Gruber 2012), specifically in EMEMUS (Menéndez et al. 2018). Further examples of metacognitive developments include awareness raising and self-monitoring, as in the following example.

The first presentation they do is a small presentation in small groups, for a small group of people, and in the last presentation, it's also in the same way. So it's can you feel the difference between your first presentation, and this presentation? And the majority of them feel the difference in terms of confidence, especially in terms of confidence.

Beyond these examples, Encarna regularly draws attention to the importance of learning skills for her EMEMUS students, which positions her practices and processes as contributing to the effective implementation of EMEMUS and the internationalization of the university. Notably, Encarna's expertise in education is arguably central to her engagement in these practices.

Alongside her dedication to developing learners, Encarna exhibits strong content knowledge in the field of education, as can be seen in the following examples.

I am teaching one-and-a-half courses – the main course about educational technology, that is called Resources and ICT in Education; and one part of the other course that is organisation, school organisation. Basically, my courses are about how to implement the resources and ICT in education, is how to implement and how technology is impacting education and basically in primary school, but also in the teacher professional development.

As well as further content areas, Encarna also discusses assessment protocols, projects, and teaching methods regularly in the context of supporting the delivery of subject knowledge. This reflects the expectations on the professional EMEMUS educator to effectively deliver subject knowledge through English (Dafouz and Smit 2020).

Furthermore, when considering the transition to teaching in English, Encarna claims that she does not change her pedagogical approach.

So I try to work with my students with something called task-based learning, so as my task-based learning is less and less based on lectures, I don't feel so...the difference between teaching in English and teaching in Spanish so big.

She discusses taking a task-based approach, which is also what she does in Spanish. While initially this appears contrary to Dafouz and Smit's (2020) claim that EMEMUS students require a change in approach, it emerges later in the interview that Encarna does change facets of her teaching approach for each language. For example, when discussing her use of a specific debate format, the Lincoln-Douglas style, she acknowledges that this would be too cognitively challenging for her students to conduct in English.



So maybe they are, and I have to say that in my English classes, there are some techniques that I cannot use, for example, in Spanish I do the debate called Linc-...they're in a Lincoln-Douglas style, that is very precise with times and so on. But I know that my students cannot have this speed for thinking and for...

Furthermore, she makes explicit reference to the importance of formality in Spanish.

So in Spanish – and I always said remember that you are in a formal situation and you must defend your things, and present your things in a formal way.

However, this same expectation is not extended to English, as the following example makes clear.

In English I am more relaxed with that, and I know that they cannot be formal on non-formal in English, and they are... The English they have...

This example indicates two important and somewhat conflicting implications for EMEMUS. Firstly, this, like the previous examples, exemplifies Encarna's attempt to respond to her students' needs from a pedagogical perspective, reflecting characteristics of effective EMEMUS lecturers. Second, however, this simplification of expectations in English indicates a lack of attentiveness to the linguistic needs of the learners (Dafouz and Smit 2020). Further examples of Encarna's reduction of the role of English occur where she asks students to supply transcripts after delivering presentations.

And I have asked them for – make them for give me the transcription of the media, because I want to be sure that I have listened to everything they want to say, or they have said, because of their accent or whatever they can make some mistakes, and I can understand and other things.

In this example, she mitigates potential language problems that could occur surrounding pronunciation by allowing students to submit a transcription of their presentation. While this may appear accommodating to students, as she attempts to reduce the negative impact of language on assessment, it also presents a potential disservice. EMEMUS students require very specific language support (Fujimoto-Adamson and Adamson 2018), and by mitigating the importance of pronunciation and spoken delivery, the students do not receive specific teaching to improve these particular linguistic competences. Similarly, she acknowledges that in assessing students, she pays more attention to argument than language accuracy.

Answering, and for looking to their arguments, so I don't use these kind of advanced language protocols.

This once again moves to reduce the importance placed on language as opposed to facilitating the development of relevant linguistic competencies. Carlos similarly discusses the lack of attention to language during EMEMUS lessons. During his training period, he was impacted by a particular lecturer's stance that content should prevail over the linguistic medium of expression.

And I remember a French professor who was actually teaching at Cambridge for many years and he said, “French people don’t speak French either, probably. So just tell me what you want to tell me, and put French words, but at the end I will revalue you for it for the content of your work.”

While it may be unrealistic to expect Encarna and Carlos to perform the duties of both content and language specialists, Brown (2017) proposes co-teaching by language and content experts as a means to integrate language development within the EMEMUS curriculum. Though this may be impractical or infeasible in all contexts, learners’ language needs arguably need to be attended to, if we wish to support the development of EMEMUS, effectively.

Further examples emerge in Encarna’s interview that show her lack of capacity and training to effectively respond to her students’ language needs. The following example shows how Encarna, aware of her lack of ability to give detailed feedback on language, tries to give more generic feedback on language.

And so I always try to give them some feedback, but general feedback about language, something like please use the grammar correct, or please be careful when you use this or that.

Although language is not traditionally considered the remit of the EMEMUS lecturer (Madhavan and McDonald 2014), here Encarna shows that owing to the lack of integrated linguistic support, she must respond in some way to her students’ language needs. However, her lack of training in doing so is in direct conflict with the requirements for effective development of EMEMUS. This reflects Dearden et al. (2016), who find that EMEMUS lecturers typically lack language awareness and training as well as the general challenges surrounding language pedagogy in EMEMUS identified in Vu and Burns (2014). Similar training needs emerge in Carlos’ interview when he identifies an existing inertia not to use technology among the faculty, which limits the value technology can afford in supporting the linguistic development of students. Far from complying with standard uses, he tries to make use of current tools such as interactive quizzes. Interestingly, he seems to be aware of a technology divide between staff and students in terms of the preferred channels of communication. A case in point is the use of email by students, which seems to be a problem in the law degree program and, most probably, throughout the university.

Overall, in terms of Encarna’s and Carlos’ practices and processes pertaining to teaching, there is clear evidence of their roles as facilitators of EMEMUS and agents of internationalization. They prioritize the development of learning skills that are integral to student success in EMEMUS. Moreover, reflexive teaching for the learner groups in Spanish and English, and local and international groupings is evidenced in their approach to respond to their students’ needs. However, they also exhibit some practices and processes that could act as barriers to effective EMEMUS implementation. In terms of support for the linguistic needs of students, their interviews demonstrate a tendency to reduce the

impact of language deficits on student assessment, and Encarna explicitly acknowledges her lack of capacity to effectively respond to students' language needs in detail. Carlos similarly identifies a lack of willingness of lecturers to use technology to help support their teaching through English. In order to facilitate effective EMEMUS and the internationalization of the university, it is imperative that the students' subject knowledge and linguistic needs are met. Therefore, the approach to managing language issues and the lack of integrated language support may prove problematic.

### **Practices, Processes, and the Wider Perspective**

While the previous section offered an in-depth investigation into the practices and processes of two EMEMUS lecturers, the discussion centered on what Dafouz and Smit (2020) identify as micro level practices and processes. However, they also recognize that by analyzing the micro level, it is possible to shed some light on the more global facets of the internationalization processes in different institutions. With this in mind, and drawing on both the interviews and the survey data, this section offers a brief discussion of the emergent macro level practices and processes and what these tell us about EMEMUS, the broader ROADMAPPING criteria, and the internationalization process at this Spanish higher education institution.

Encarna and Carlos both adopt practices that help support effective internationalization processes, and many of these are shared by the lecturers who were surveyed. For example, through analyzing the interviews, it became clear that both Encarna and Carlos adopt social constructivist approaches to learning, and this adoption reflects effective internationalization practices and processes (Littleton and Mercer 2013). Such an approach is also reflected more widely in the survey data, where 95% of lecturers claim to regularly encourage student participation and 76% of lecturers claim to make use of group work in their teaching. While such a value for the socialization of learning is a strength for the institution, there is less explicit evidence of specific aims and structure that can guide the development of a learning community. This may be a valuable direction for the institutions' EMEMUS policy as, following Van Compernelle and Williams (2012), it may support the development of an international community.

In terms of supporting learning for the EMEMUS, both Encarna and Carlos demonstrate the need to respond to specific learner needs. Again, this is reflected in the survey data, where 73% of lecturers see writing in Spanish for higher education to be very different to writing in English. Therefore, they see a wide gap between literacy practices in Spanish and English and alter their approaches accordingly. In fact, 92% of the lecturers do this by using slides, notes, and handouts to help students follow classes in English, and 76% of lecturers use group work as an opportunity to process new information and language in English. One final consideration in terms of these shared practices is the use of technology. While Carlos signals that there is an institutional reluctance to use technology, looking more broadly at the

survey, this perspective does not appear to hold. According to the survey data, 71% of lecturers think that language and learning technologies are important when teaching in English, 93% feel comfortable with technology in the classroom, 79% consider such technology useful for teaching in English, and 88% of lecturers think language and learning technologies are beneficial for their EMEMUS students. Therefore, while some lecturers fit Carlos' description as reluctant to use technology, this is by no means the majority. That being said, technological intervention alone does not appear to be the panacea to EMEMUS challenges. While it would be valuable to delve further into these discreet practices and processes, what they tell us is that there is a shared institutional behavior that sees value in the socialization of learning and that recognizes the importance of responding to specific learner needs in the EMEMUS (Dafouz and Smit 2020).

There are also institutional behaviors that conflict with effective internationalization processes. While Dafouz and Smit (2020: 57) identify that the "nature of [EMEMUS] groups often demands different pedagogical approaches," Encarna claims she does not change her pedagogical approach, and only 40% of the lecturers surveyed claimed that they change their teaching approach when teaching in English. Furthermore, only 50% of lecturers think learner needs require specific consideration when teaching in EMEMUS. These results are quite low given how important reflexive and responsive teaching is positioned in the literature (Dafouz and Smit 2020). Moreover, although Encarna recognizes the value of developing learner autonomy and metacognitive skills that support EMEMUS learners (Menéndez et al. 2018), this is not a widespread view, as only 33% of lecturers surveyed incorporate metacognitive strategies like reflective practices into their teaching. These inconsistencies indicate that teaching practices in this EMEMUS are not always shared throughout the institution and beliefs about necessary interventions for EMEMUS teaching are not consistent. This may be owing to a lack of clarification of what EMEMUS means for this institution and, importantly, this may negatively impact the internationalization process. Therefore, following Dafouz and Smit (2020), there is a potential for the results of this and larger studies to reveal effective EMEMUS and internationalization practices and impact both local and national educational policies.

For Encarna, there are further macro insights that emerge. Her opinions about the use of English in teaching and learning are not hers alone. Like Encarna, the survey participants held many views on the importance of teaching in English—81% of participants enjoy teaching in English and, furthermore, they see English as having inherent value for their and their students' careers. For example, 83% of lecturers think that teaching in English will help their career, and 93% of lecturers consider English to be valuable for their students' futures. This presents some insight into the goal of the institution being the production of bilingually educated graduates with high employability. However, this macro perspective, which privileges the English language, appears to conflict with the known advantages that translanguaging offers EMEMUS (Garcia and Wei 2014). Moreover, if the broad perspective of the

institution supports this view of bilingualism as excluding translanguaging, it raises questions about the overarching institutional EMEMUS policy and its communication to and its enactment by the lecturing staff. Further analysis into the agents and roles of English in the ROADMAPPING framework may help address these issues. Moreover, while lecturers do see value in teaching and learning in English, this does not come without issues.

Mixed abilities seem to be a problem in this EMEMUS, with only 23% of lecturers not experiencing issues with mixed language ability in the classroom. This is in keeping with the literature (Macaro et al. 2018). Moreover, in the context of language provision, the emerging story appears to be one of doubt or confusion. While traditional definitions of EMEMUS indicate that language is not within the remit of the EMEMUS lecturer (Madhavan and McDonald 2014), both Encarna and Carlos identify the relevance of language. However, the hierarchy of content over language in Carlos' interview and the lack of skills to fully address language concerns in Encarna's interview highlight that these practitioners still see language as a lesser part of their work. Importantly, that is not to say it is not part of their role. Looking at the survey, the lack of certainty surrounding the place for language in the lecturers' practices is amplified. For example, 38% of the lecturers feel they need to support their students with the development of their English, while 30% are unsure as to whether they ought to. Similarly, only 36% of the lecturers feel that they have the skills to support language learning, while 33% are unsure if they can do it. Only 23% of the lecturers feel that they can teach and explain language points, while 40% are unsure. Furthermore, 33% of lecturers feel they need support to teach in English and 24% are unsure. What this tells us is that some lecturers see supporting language as part of their role while others do not. However, for the most part, they are unsure. Overall, 55% of the lecturers find teaching in English to be challenging, which may explain some of this uncertainty. Therefore, the issue of language provision is unclear to the lecturers but they have to engage with it to some degree nonetheless in their classrooms. The lack of clarity surrounding their remit as EMEMUS lecturers reflects a broader issue in the institution, which may need to address the need for both content and language provision more clearly. This may be better supported by collaboration between language and content experts, as Brown (2017) suggests. However, this would need top-down institutional support and enhanced critical awareness about the role of language, multilingualism, and literacies in education.

Recalling Carlos' view of nationality as key in defining student behavior in EMEMUS lessons, his beliefs and language ideologies appear to be impacted by wider phenomena in language policy. In fact, this view is largely shared by the other lecturers surveyed, where only 30% of lecturers expressed no worries about their students' ability to understand English in the classroom. These views of Spanish speaker language competence appear to tie in with Spolsky's work on language ideology (2004) and this identification of a country with a language, a homogenous group of speakers and, apparently, an overall approach to learning, calls for further examination and an analysis of the implications. The EMEMUS

landscape is not an exception and should not escape this analysis. Not only do “most countries have language education policies that define foreign-language teaching” (Spolsky 2004: 48) but these policies impact classroom language teaching “as well as the thinking of language teachers and pupils about language pedagogy and learning.” Evans and Fisher (2010: 491) argue that the impact of language policies is influenced by processes of mediation and appropriation. In particular, they showed how the KS3 Framework for Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) in the UK “does not explicitly engage with central pedagogical questions, assumptions and decisions that ultimately every language teacher faces and that define” how languages need to be taught and learnt. Based on the evidence provided by school agents interviewed, they argue that teachers [are] mediators of the [language policy] in terms of its translation into policy and practice in the language classroom but that this mediation is itself influenced by different mediating factors such as prior beliefs and understandings of language pedagogy, training, resources and interaction with colleagues.

This finding seems to suggest that teachers’ beliefs may determine actual classroom practices. In the survey data, 33% find it hard to incorporate language pedagogy and traditional pedagogy into their practices and 36% are unsure of how to approach this. Moreover, for Carlos and the other lecturers surveyed, prior beliefs can include previous experience as a student and researcher outside Spain and, overall, global, national and institutional policies appear to shape the internationalization process at this institution.

### **Conclusion: Accessing Internationalization through ROADMAPPING**

In concluding this chapter, it is worth reflecting on the use of ROADMAPPING in this analysis. ROADMAPPING was adopted as a means to theoretically position and interrogate teacher beliefs, and its six dimensions offered an emic approach with interdisciplinary grounding for the investigation of how the internationalization process in a Spanish university context is impacted by EMEMUS. ROADMAPPING served as an effective means to analyze and organize the data. However, there emerged over the course of the analysis facets of the interviews that did not fit neatly within the six dimensions. For example, the use of language brokering and translation technologies for addressing language provision by the students emerged. This raised questions of the need to expand on some dimensions of ROADMAPPING to include the role that language technologies, as opposed to educational and language learning technologies, may play in internationalization processes and EMEMUS. Nonetheless, for the purposes of exploring practices and process, ROADMAPPING allowed for the study of micro level practices and processes in terms of learning and social constructivism and reflexive and adaptive teaching in EMEMUS, as well as offering macro level insights into broader institutional practices and processes. This also allowed for the identification of the challenges the EMEMUS lecturers face as well as potential directions for informing policy at this Spanish university and beyond.

Methodologically, the analysis and subsequent annotation of the interviews using ROADMAPPING has proved both useful and feasible. We would argue, however, that further analyzes should explore the units of analysis either below or above the sentence or the utterance and, possibly, the use of clustering to probe into the relationships between the annotation codes. Triangulation with corpus research methods (Egbert and Baker 2019; Pérez-Paredes 2020) seems a good option to enhance the ecological validity of the results and to smooth researcher biases (Baker 2006).

In terms of beliefs, ROADMAPPING allowed us to position teacher beliefs within a larger ecosystem wherein their beliefs are understood in terms of their practices and processes (Skott 2014). These are in turn considered in terms of their capacity to facilitate or impede the internationalization process, and as such are theoretically positioned and given purpose. The study of beliefs has been problematized as being conceptually inconsistent (Skott 2014), lacking purpose (Borg 2015), and uncritical (Borg and Alshumaimeri 2019). However, by situating EMEMUS lecturers' beliefs within ROADMAPPING, this study responds to these criticisms. This also allows for systematic reviews to compare studies on beliefs more effectively, provided the same framework is applied to other studies, e.g., Dafouz and Smit (2016).

Finally, returning to Macaro et al. (2018), this study was inspired by the following questions: Do different HE institutions (e.g., private and state) experience different levels of success in implementing EMI? If so, why? Macaro et al. (2018) call for research on different institutions to help create a clearer and larger image of the current state of EMEMUS. Our study investigates the practices and processes that impact the internationalization process by way of EMEMUS within a Spanish public university. Through the analysis, a number of themes emerged that indicate how this institution is effectively implementing EMEMUS, for example, through social constructivist approaches and learner-centered teaching, and factors which may inhibit its success, for example, a resistance toward translanguaging and limited language provision. ROADMAPPING was an important choice in moving to address Macaro et al.'s (2018) question. Its adoption will allow this research to be directly compared with future studies that use ROADMAPPING as a shared theoretical framework. Moving forward, there are several emerging paths worth considering. Methodologically, it is worth considering further expansions and interrogations of the ROADMAPPING framework to address the concerns raised earlier in this section. Furthermore, more studies are needed that investigate the remaining five dimensions of ROADMAPPING, and further research is needed that compares the results of such studies across different institutions.

### **Acknowledgements**

We would like to thank Cambridge University Press, for funding this research, Dr Emma Dafouz, for reading an earlier version of this chapter, the reviewers, for their help in improving this work, and the lecturers who participated in this study.

## References

- Baker, P. (2006). *Using corpora in discourse analysis*. London: Continuum.
- Baker, W., & Hüttner, J. (2017). English and more: A multisite study of roles and conceptualisations of language in English medium multilingual universities from Europe to Asia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38 (6), 501–516.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social functions of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Borg, S. (2015). Researching teacher beliefs. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical resource* (pp. 487– 504). London: Bloomsbury.
- Borg, S., & Alshumaimeri, Y. (2019). Language learner autonomy in a tertiary context: Teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*, 23(1), 9–38.
- Brown, H. (2017). Cooperation and collaboration in undergraduate EMI: Adapting EAP to the emergence of blended academic norms and practices in a Japanese university. In J. Valcke & R. Wilkinson (Eds.), *Integrating content and language in higher education: Perspectives on professional practice* (pp. 151–166). Peter Lang.
- Brown, H., & Bradford, A. (2018). Teaching subject content through English: CLIL and EMI courses in the Japanese university. In P. Wadden & C. C. Hale (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese universities* (pp. 103–108). London: Routledge.
- Carpenter, C., & Murphey, T. (2007). Finding agency in language learning histories. In *Proceedings of the Independent Learning Association 2007 Japan Conference: Exploring Theory, Enhancing Practice: Autonomy Across the Disciplines*, 1–8.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The modern language journal*, 94 (1), 103–115.
- Cummins, J. (1994). The acquisition of English as a second language. In K. Spangenberg Urbschat & R. Pritchard (Eds.), *Reading Instruction for ESL Students* (pp. 36–62). International Reading Association: Delaware.
- Curry, N. (2019). Learners as models: The pedagogical value of near peer role models. *Speak Out! Journal of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, 60, 34–43.
- Dafouz, E. (2018). English-medium instruction and teacher education programmes in higher education: Ideological forces and imagined identities at work. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(5), 540–552.
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2016). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics*, 37 (3), 397–415.
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2020). *ROAD-MAPPING English medium education in the internationalised university*. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dearden, J. (2015). *English as a medium of instruction—A growing global phenomenon*. London: British Council.
- Dearden, J., Akincioglu, M., & Macaro, E. (2016). *EMI in Turkish universities: Collaborative planning and students' voices*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.



- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2013). Future challenges for English-medium instruction at the tertiary level. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities* (pp. 213–221). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Egbert, J., & Baker, P. (2019). *Using corpus methods to triangulate linguistic analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Evans, M., & Fisher, L. (2010). Translating policy into practice: The impact of the KS3 framework for MFL on language teaching and learning in schools in England. *Research Papers in Education*, 25 (4), 479–493.
- Fives, H., & Gill, M. G. (2014). *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs*. London: Routledge.
- Fujimoto-Adamson, N., & Adamson, J. (2018). From EFL to EMI: Hybrid practices in English as a medium of instruction in Japanese tertiary contexts. In Y. Kirkgöz & K. Dikilitas (Eds.), *Key Issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 201–221). New York and Cham: Springer.
- Garcia, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Haneda, M. (1997). Second language learning in a “community of practice”: A case study of adult Japanese learners. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54 (1), 11–27.
- HM Government. (2019). *International education strategy global potential, global growth*. Available online: [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/799349/International\\_Education\\_Strategy\\_Accessible.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/799349/International_Education_Strategy_Accessible.pdf).
- Lanvers, U., & Hultgren, A. K. (2018). The Englishization of European education: Foreword. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 10 (1), 1–11.
- Littleton, K., & Mercer, N. (2013). *Interthinking: Putting talk to work*. London: Routledge.
- Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36–76.
- Madhavan, D., & McDonald, J. (2014). *English as Medium of Instruction (EMI): Philosophies and policies*. Webinar session at Ecole Centrale Paris. Available online: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/imhe/foodforthoughtenglishasamediumofinstructionwebinar.pdf>.
- Mattar, J. (2018). Constructivism and connectivism in education technology: Active, situated, authentic, experiential, and anchored learning. *Revista Iberoamericana de Educación a Distancia*, 21(2), 201–217.
- Menéndez, M. J. R., Grande, E. U., Sánchez, P. L., & Camacho-Miñano, M. M. (2018). Motivation and learning strategies in accounting: Are there differences in English as a medium of instruction (EMI) versus non-EMI students? *Revista de Contabilidad*, 21(2), 128–139.
- New Zealand Government. (2018). *International education strategy*. Available online: <https://enz.govt.nz/assets/Uploads/International-Education-Strategy2018-2030.pdf>.
- Newman, R. S. (1998). Students' help seeking during problem solving: Influences of personal and contextual achievement goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90 (4), 644–658.
- OECD. (2020). *Education attainment—Population with tertiary education*. Available online: <https://data.oecd.org/eduatt/population-with-tertiary-education.htm>.
- Ortega, L. (2014). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London: Routledge.

- Pérez-Paredes, P. (2020). *Corpus linguistics for education research*. London: Routledge.
- Ruddick, M., & Nadasdy, P. (2013). The influence of near peer role models (NPRMs) in second language classrooms intended to improve students' pronunciation when teacher intervention is not enough. *Asian EFL Journal*, 65, 28–40.
- Schworm, S., & Gruber, H. (2012). E-Learning in universities: Supporting help-seeking processes by instructional prompts. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 43(2), 272–281.
- Skott, J. (2014). The promises, problems, and prospects of research teachers' beliefs'. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs* (pp. 13–30). London: Routledge.
- Smit, U. (2013). Learning affordances in integrating content and English as a lingua franca ('ICELF'): On an implicit approach to English medium teaching. *Journal of Academic Writing*, 3(1), 15–29.
- Spolsky, B. (2004). *Language policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Compernelle, R. A., & Williams, L. (2012). Promoting sociolinguistic competence in the classroom zone of proximal development. *Language Teaching Research*, 16 (1), 39–60.
- Vu, N. T. T., & Burns, A. (2014). English as a medium of instruction: Challenges for Vietnamese tertiary lecturers. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 11(3), 1–31.